# Learning union of k-testable languages

Statistical and symbolic language modeling project

Rania el Bouhssini, Martin Laville and Félix Jamet January 10, 2019

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## 1 Introduction

Unless explicitely specified, all definitions and algorithms in this document are coming from Linard *et al.* (2018), which will sometimes be referred to as "the paper".

We will present a possible implementation of those definitions and algorithms in a modular fashion, using Python3. Modular meaning here that we will implement concepts as they come and assemble them later as a whole when the necessary parts are complete. So if an \_\_init\_\_ appears in the wild without its enclosing class , it's nothing to worry about.

## 2 *k*-testable languages

A k-testable language is a language that can be recognised by sliding a window of size k over an input. By definition, we have k > 0 since sliding a window of null or negative size would hardly make any sense.

A language is said to be k-testable in the strict sense (k-TSS) if it can be represented using a construct called a k-test vector. The necessary informations and operations on this construct will be implemented in the ktestable class.

### 2.1 *k*-test vector

A *k*-test vector is a 4-tuple  $Z = \langle I, F, T, C \rangle$ :

- $I \in \Sigma^{k-1}$  is a set of allowed prefixes,
- $F \in \Sigma^{k-1}$  is a set of allowed suffixes,
- $T \in \Sigma^k$  is a set of allowed segments, and
- $C \in \Sigma^{< k}$  is a set of allowed short strings satisfying  $I \cap F = C \cap \Sigma^{k-1}$ .

We will refer to I, F, T and C respectively as the allowed prefixes, suffixes, infixes and short strings. Moreover, we will refer to  $I \cap F$ , *i.e.* the prefixes that are also suffixes as presuffixes. An intuitive way to formulate the constraint on short strings is that the short strings of length k-1 have to be presuffixes and vice versa.

This definition can be translated into an init.

Init k-test vector:

```
def __init__(self, prefixes, suffixes, infixes, shorts, k=None):
    self.k = len(next(iter(infixes))) if k is None else k
    self.prefixes = prefixes
    self.suffixes = suffixes
    self.infixes = infixes
    self.shorts = shorts
    self.ensure_correct_definition()
```

We then write  $ensure\_correct\_definition$  to make sure that the created k-test vector respects the conditions of the definition.

Ensure correct definition:

```
def ensure_correct_definition(self):
    def same_length(collection, reference_length):
        return all(map(lambda x: len(x) == reference_length, collection))

errors = []
    if not same_length(self.prefixes, self.k - 1):
        errors.append('incorrect prefix length')
    if not same_length(self.suffixes, self.k - 1):
        errors.append('incorrect suffix length')
    if not same_length(self.infixes, self.k):
        errors.append('incorrect infix length')
    if not all(map(lambda x: len(x) < self.k, self.shorts)):
        errors.append('incorrect short string length')

presuffixes = self.prefixes & self.suffixes
    shorts_len_k = set(filter(lambda x: len(x) == self.k - 1, self.shorts))</pre>
```

```
if presuffixes != shorts_len_k:
    errors.append('short strings conditions not satisfied')

if len(errors) >0:
    raise ValueError(', '.join(errors).capitalize() + '.')
```

### 2.2 *k*-test vectors as a partially ordered set

Let  $\mathcal{T}_k$  be the set of all k-test vectors. A partial order  $\sqsubseteq$  can be defined on  $\mathcal{T}_k$  as follow:

```
\langle I, F, T, C \rangle \sqsubseteq \langle I', F', T', C' \rangle \iff I \subseteq I' \land F \subseteq F' \land T \subseteq T' \land C \subseteq C'
```

With this partial order, a union, an intersection and a symmetric difference can be defined on the *k*-test vectors  $Z = \langle I, F, T, C \rangle$  and  $Z' = \langle I', F', T', C' \rangle$ .

First, we need to be able to check whether two testable are compatible, i.e. whether they have the same k.

k-test vector compatibility:

#### 2.2.1 Union (□)

```
Z \sqcup Z' = \langle I \cup I', F \cup F', T \cup T', C \cup C' \cup (I \cap F') \cup (I' \cap F) \rangle
```

We can see that the constraint on short strings  $I \cap F = C \cap \Sigma^{k-1}$  is still respected because the short strings are updated with all the cases which could contradict it.

The implementation is a quite litteral translation if this definition.

k-test vector union:

```
def union(self, other):
    self.ensure_compatibility(other)
    prefixes = self.prefixes | other.prefixes
    suffixes = self.suffixes | other.suffixes
    infixes = self.infixes | other.infixes
    shorts = self.shorts | other.shorts |\
        (self.prefixes & other.suffixes) |\
        (self.suffixes & other.prefixes)
    return ktestable(prefixes, suffixes, infixes, shorts, k=self.k)
```

#### 2.2.2 Intersection ( $\Box$ )

```
Z \cap Z' = \langle I \cap I', F \cap F', T \cap T', C \cap C' \rangle
```

Once again, the implementation is straightforward.

k-test vector intersection:

```
def intersection(self, other):
    self.ensure_compatibility(other)
    prefixes = self.prefixes & other.prefixes
    suffixes = self.suffixes & other.suffixes
```

```
infixes = self.infixes & other.infixes
shorts = self.shorts & other.shorts
return ktestable(prefixes, suffixes, infixes, shorts, k=self.k)
```

#### 2.2.3 Symmetric difference ( $\triangle$ )

```
Z\triangle Z' = \langle I\triangle I', F\triangle F', T\triangle T', C\triangle C'\triangle (I\cap F')\triangle (I'\cap F)\rangle
```

Once more, it's only a matter of translating the set operations into python code.

k-test vector symmetric difference:

```
def symmetric_difference(self, other):
    self.ensure_compatibility(other)
    prefixes = self.prefixes ^ other.prefixes
    suffixes = self.suffixes ^ other.suffixes
    infixes = self.infixes ^ other.infixes
    shorts = self.shorts ^ other.shorts ^\
        (self.prefixes & other.suffixes) ^\
        (self.suffixes & other.prefixes)
    return ktestable(prefixes, suffixes, infixes, shorts, k=self.k)
```

#### 2.2.4 Operators

Since the semantic of the three operations defined above are similar to those of sets, we create operators for them, matching the operators of set, the python builtin. That is to say | for union, & for intersection and ^ for symmetric difference.

k-test vector operators:

```
def __or__(self, other):
    return self.union(other)

def __and__(self, other):
    return self.intersection(other)

def __xor__(self, other):
    return self.symmetric_difference(other)
```

### 2.3 Measures

The theorem 3 of Linard et al. (2018) states that

Any language that is a union of *k*-TSS languages can be identified in the limit from positive examples.

We will call "a union of *k*-TSS languages" a *k*-TSS-union. This Theorem means that when trying to learn a *k*-TSS-union from examples, the language will be learned at some point, having only seen a finite number of examples, even though the language might have an infinite number of examples.

It provides us with a baseline algorithm to learn a k-TSS-union. We consider each example as a language of its own and take the union of those examples. One problem of this algorithm is that it requires a great number of k-test vectors and will thus tend to be computationally expensive.

The solution to this problem is to consider it as a clustering problem by putting together similar vectors. The clustering algorithm will be seen later. Before this, there is a need to define a metric on k-test vectors, metric which will use the notion of cardinality.

### 2.3.1 Cardinality

The cardinality of a *k*-test vector  $Z = \langle I, F, T, C \rangle$  is defined as:

$$|Z| = |I| + |F| + |T| + |C \cap \Sigma^{k-1}|$$

Once again, we see the influence of the short strings constraint since only the short strings of length less then k-1 are taken into account. Curiously, there is nothing in place to compensate for the presuffixes being counted twice. An alternative measure that takes this deduplication into account can be defined as:

$$|Z| = |I| + |F| + |T| + |C \cap \Sigma^{k-1}| - |I \cap F|$$

But we will still use the original definition.

k-test vector cardinality:

```
def cardinality(self):
    return len(self.prefixes) + len(self.suffixes) + len(self.infixes) +\
        sum(map(lambda x: 1 if len(x) < self.k - 1 else 0, self.shorts))

def __len__(self):
    return self.cardinality()</pre>
```

We also defined the operator len, since the meaning is similar to the builtin len of python sets.

#### 2.3.2 Distance

The distance between two *k*-test vectors is the cardinality of their symmetric difference:

```
d(Z, Z') = |Z \triangle Z'|
```

It corresponds intuitively to the number of constituents that must be added or removed in order to go from one *k*-test vector to the other.

```
k-test vector distance:
```

```
def distance(self, other):
    return len(self ^ other)
```

### 2.4 Creation from an example

The provided  $\_init\_$  method can only construct a k-testable from its components. It's fairly easy to construct the minimal prefixes, suffixes, infixes and short strings necessary to detect an example e, or as the authors of the paper call it, a canonical k-test vector.

The prefixes and suffixes are simply the sets composed of the prefix and suffix of the example. The infixes can be defined by extracting all substring of length k. The only thing to be mindful of is the short strings condition and the case where e < k - 1 (when there are no prefixes, only a short string). The e = k case sorts itself out because in this situation, the example is just one presuffix.

4-tuple from example:

```
def ktest_tuple(example, k):
    if len(example) < k - 1:
        prefixes = set()
        suffixes = set()
        shorts = {example}
    else:
        prefixes = {example[:k-1]}</pre>
```

```
suffixes = {example[-k+1:]}
shorts = prefixes & suffixes

infixes = {example[i:i+k] for i in range(0, len(example) - k + 1)}
return (prefixes, suffixes, infixes, shorts)
```

We use this function to create a factory method for the ktestable class.

Construct ktestable from example:

```
@classmethod
def from_example(cls, example, k):
    return cls(*ktest_tuple(example, k), k)
```

### 2.5 Tests

We make some tests to ensure that the implementation works at least superficially as intended:

```
tests = {
    'invalid example': ({'aa'}, {'aa'}, {'aaaa'}, {'ada'}),
    'aa+': ktest_tuple('aaa', 3),
    'bb+': ktest_tuple('bbb', 3)
instanciations = {}
for name, parameters in tests.items():
    try:
        ktest = ktestable(*parameters)
        print('The creation of "%s": %s went well' % (name, parameters))
        instanciations[name] = ktest
    except ValueError as e:
        print('The creation of "%s": %s failed:\n -' % (name, parameters), e)
union = instanciations['aa+'] | instanciations['bb+']
intersection = instanciations['aa+'] & instanciations['bb+']
symmetric_difference = instanciations['aa+'] ^ instanciations['bb+']
print(union.prefixes)
print(intersection.prefixes)
print(symmetric_difference.prefixes)
print(union.distance(union))
print(union.distance(intersection))
print(len(union), len(intersection))
```

```
The creation of "invalid example": ({'aa'}, {'aaa'}, {'aaa'}) failed:

- Incorrect prefix length, incorrect suffix length, short strings conditions not satisfied.

The creation of "aa+": ({'aa'}, {'aaa'}, {'aaa'}) went well

The creation of "bb+": ({'bb'}, {'bbb'}, {'bbb'}) went well

{'aa', 'bb'}

set()

{'aa', 'bb'}
```

## 3 Efficient algorithm

The efficient algorithm presented in the paper creates one language per example and applies a hierarchical clustering algorithm to merge the languages two by two, if they are compatible.

In this part, we will first see how to find out if two languages are compatible (*i.e.* if their union is consistent). We will then present an alternative to the nearest-neighbour algorithm to produce a union of *k*-testable languages.

### 3.1 Union consistency definition

Before learning the union of languages, we need to ensure the union consistency between two k-test vectors Z and Z', i.e. the fact that the union of their languages should be the languages of their union. Linard  $et\ al.$ 's proposition 4 provides a way to do this.

Proposition 4 relies on padded prefixes and suffixes. A padded prefix is a prefix with an out-of-alphabet character • added at the beginning of its string. A padded suffix adds this character at the end of its string.

The idea is to create an oriented graph from the two *k*-test vectors, where a path starting from a prefix, ending in a suffix and passing through infixes will represent a word generated by the union of those *k*-test vectors. We will call this graph the consistency graph, and there are three aspects to it:

The vertices are the padded prefixes, the padded suffixes and the infixes:

$$V = \{ \bullet u | u \in I \cup I' \} \cup \{ u \bullet | u \in F \cup F' \} \cup T \cup T'$$

**The edges** are drawn from one vertex to the other if the suffix of size k-1 of the first vertex is equal to the prefix of size k-1 of the second vertex:

$$E = \{(au, ub) \in V \times V | a, b \in \Sigma \cup \{\bullet\}, u \in \Sigma^{k-1}\}$$

**The colors** are reflecting whether a vertex is "endemic" to one vector:

- a red vertex is endemic to Z,
- a blue vertex is endemic to Z', and
- a white vertex is endemic to both.

A vertex v is endemic to a vector  $X = \langle I, F, T, C \rangle$  compared to another vector  $X' = \langle I', F', T', C' \rangle$  if it appears only in X. More formally, it is endemic if the following holds:

$$\begin{cases} u \in I \setminus I' & \text{if } v = \bullet u \\ u \in F \setminus F' & \text{if } v = u \bullet \\ v \in T \setminus T' & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The paper shows that the union consistency is ensured if and only if there exists no path between a red vertex and a blue vertex. A path between red and blue vertices means that a word out of both languages emerges in the union, which is precisely what we want to avoid.

We will first compute the consistency graph and then test the union consistency. Both of these operations will be implemented into their own method of ktestable.

### 3.2 Consistency graph

For brevity and sanity's sake, we will use a library to do operations on graphs. We have chosen NetworkX<sup>1</sup> since it has proved to be easier to install than the alternatives.

We suppose NetworkX has already been imported like this:

```
import networkx as nx
```

The method consistency\_graph constructs the graph and consists of three parts;

Construct consistency graph:

We construct the vertices but rather than using padded prefixes and suffixes, we prepend the letters P and S to the prefixes and the suffixes, respectively. Those letters allow us to distinguish between presuffixes. It is indeed possible to have a presuffix in the union but if the prefix is blue, then the suffix might be red and if we do not distinguish presuffixes, we will not be able to have the right result when searching for multicolor paths in the graph.

Vertices construction:

```
prefixes = {'P' + el for el in self.prefixes | other.prefixes}
suffixes = {'S' + el for el in self.suffixes | other.suffixes}
infixes = {el for el in self.infixes | other.infixes}
```

There are only three ways in which an edge can form between two vertices:

- a prefix can connect to an infix,
- an infix can connect to another infix, and
- an infix can connect to a suffix.

Edges construction:

Since we are only interested by the paths between vertices, we construct the graph from the edges only, thus leaving out isolated vertices. In any case, there should not be isolated vertices because the k-test vectors are supposed to be well-constructed.

Graph assembling:

```
graph = nx.DiGraph()
graph.add_edges_from(edges)
return graph
```

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See https://networkx.github.io/documentation/stable/install.html.

### 3.3 Union consistency implementation

Union consistency:

We compute only the red and blue vertices, we do not need the white. As has been done before, we prepend a P to prefixes and an S to suffixes. We then search for a path, using the fact that searching for a path between reds and blues is akin to find a transitive closure and examine the reachability of red and blue nodes with respect to one another.

Path research:

```
reds = {'P' + el for el in self.prefixes - other.prefixes} |\
    {'S' + el for el in self.suffixes - other.suffixes} |\
    self.infixes - other.infixes

blues = {'P' + el for el in other.prefixes - self.prefixes} |\
    {'S' + el for el in other.suffixes - self.suffixes} |\
    other.infixes - self.infixes

graph = self.consistency_graph(other)
closure = nx.algorithms.dag.transitive_closure(graph)
red_reachable = {neighbour for red in reds for neighbour in closure.adj[red]}
blue_reachable = {neighbour for blue in blues for neighbour in closure.adj[blue]}
```

Finally, we only have to check if red vertices are reachable from blue vertices and vice versa.

Paths analysis:

```
return red_reachable.isdisjoint(blues) and blue_reachable.isdisjoint(reds)
```

### 3.4 Distance chain algorithm

Because we have had difficulties understanding the nearest-neighbour chain algorithm, we decided to roll our own algorithm to cluster k-test vectors. We dubbed it the distance chain algorithm. It is almost certainly less efficient than the alternative.

The core idea is to provide an easy access to nearest-neighbours by storing edges in a pre-sorted data structure, the "distance chain".

First, some vocabulary:

A point is here a k-test vector.

**An edge** is a couple of distinct points, with their distance.

**A distance link** is a way to store some edges common to to one particular point, the left point, the other points are called the right points.

A distance chain is a list of distance links without edge duplication.

All distance links are sorted according to distance and the distance chain is sorted according to the distance of the closest points, *i.e.* the first point of each link.

There are two main intuitions:

— When the two closest points are not mergeable (because they are not union compatible), it is easy to discard them and find the next two closest points.

— After the two closest points are found, a lot of now useless edges can be discarded by throwing away the distance link whose left point is one of them.

A drawback is that there will remain edges to throw away, those whose right point was one of the two merged points. Our solution is to keep track of the points that were already merged and to discard them when they come up.

Our implementation uses namedtuple, exported like this:

```
from collections import namedtuple
```

We have separated our implementation into five parts which will be explained one after the other. The first part is only about the initialisation of data structures, among which sits the main one, the distance chain. The other parts are contained in a while loop and their goal is to deplete this distance chain.

Distance chain learning:

### 3.4.1 Initialising the data structures

There are three variables whose role is to record the progression of the algorithm:

- ktest\_vectors contains the initial vectors created from the examples and will be updated with the new merged vectors.
- indexes keeps tracks of all the merges that happened.
- already\_merged records whether a vectors was already merged with another.

We also construct the initial distance chain and we make sure it is sorted.

Initialiase data structures:

```
ktest_vectors = [ktestable.from_example(ex, k) for ex in examples]
indexes = list(range(len(ktest_vectors)))
already_merged = [False] * len(ktest_vectors)

distance_link = namedtuple('d', 'neighbours left')
distance_chain = []

for left in range(0, len(ktest_vectors) - 1):
    neighbours = []
    for right in range(left + 1, len(ktest_vectors)):
        neighbours.append((ktest_vectors[left].distance(ktest_vectors[right]), right))
    neighbours.sort()
    distance_chain.append(distance_link(neighbours=neighbours, left=left))
distance_chain.sort()
```

#### 3.4.2 Finding the closest mergeable points

The idea here is to loop until the closest mergeable points are found. When the closest points are not mergeable (because the right point was already merged or because they are not union consistent), we throw the edge away and try the next one.

We make sure that the distance chain stays sorted and we remove empty links. The exit point of the function is also here, the result is returned when the distance chain has been exhausted.

Find the closest mergeable points:

### 3.4.3 Updating the merge record

As a result of the previous block, left and right are now the closest mergeable points. We record the structure of the merge into indexes, the union into ktest\_vectors, and the merge into already\_merged.

Update merge record:

```
indexes.append((indexes[left], indexes[right]))
ktest_vectors.append(ktest_vectors[left] | ktest_vectors[right])
already_merged.append(False)
already_merged[left] = already_merged[right] = True
```

#### 3.4.4 Cleaning up the distance chain

The cleanup highlights the advantage of the algorithm, the fact that a chunk of the distance chain can be quickly removed by discarding the links whose left point is left or right.

Cleanup distance chain:

```
del distance_chain[0]
for i in range(len(distance_chain)):
   if distance_chain[i].left == right:
        del distance_chain[i]
        break
```

### 3.4.5 Updating the distance chain

Finally, we construct the distance link corresponding to the *k*-test union that was just created all the while making sure that the distance chain is still sorted. It would be more efficient to simply insert the new distance link at its place in the distant chain rather than sorting the list all over again, but we wanted to put the emphasis on readability.

Update distance chain:

```
neighbours = []
for right, merged in enumerate(already_merged[:-1]):
    if not merged:
        neighbours.append((ktest_vectors[-1].distance(ktest_vectors[right]), right))
neighbours.sort()
distance_chain.append(distance_link(neighbours=neighbours, left=len(ktest_vectors) - 1))
distance_chain.sort()
```

### 3.5 Tests

Some basic tests based on examples from the paper.

Union consistency test:

```
examples = {
    'z3': ({'ab'}, {'bc'}, {'abc', 'bca', 'cab'}, {}),
    'z4': ({'cb'}, {'ba'}, {'cba', 'bac', 'acb'}, {}),
    'z5': ({'ab'}, {'ba'}, {'abb', 'bbb', 'bba'}, {}),
    'z7': ({'ab'}, {'ba'}, {'abb', 'bbb', 'bba'}, {}),
instances = {iden: ktestable(*params) for iden, params in examples.items()}
print(instances['z5'].is_union_consistent_with(instances['z7']))
print(instances['z3'].is_union_consistent_with(instances['z4']))
print(instances['z3'].is_union_consistent_with(instances['z7']))
print()
print(ktestable.from_example('baba',
→ 3).is_union_consistent_with(ktestable.from_example('babababc', 3)))
with open('dataset/paper.txt') as datasetfile:
    dataset = [line.rstrip('\n') for line in datasetfile]
res = learn_ktest_union(dataset, 3)
clusters = list(map(lambda x: x[1], res))
print(clusters)
print(len(clusters))
```

```
True
True
False

True
[((4, 6), 1), (0, 7), ((3, 5), 2)]
3
```

## 4 About proposition 4

As discussed in section 3.1, proposition 4 provides a way to find out whether the union of the languages is the language of the union, by building a consistency graph. We propose here a way to simplify this computation.

There are only two ways to go from a red to a blue component; via a direct path and via an indirect path. We only consider paths from blue to red but the same applies to paths from red to blue. A direct path is when an edge exists between a blue and a red node, whereas an indirect path goes from to a blue to a red node, while going through n white nodes,  $n \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$ .

A direct path is easy to detect and occurs when a superposition is possible between a red component and a blue component. We define the conditions for superposition to occur in the table 4.1, with  $c \in \Sigma$  and  $u, v \in \Sigma^{k-1}$ .

Left	Right	Condition for superposition
Prefix I	Infix T = uc	I = u
Infix T = cv	Infix T' = uc	v = u
Infix T = cv	Suffix F	v = F

Table 4.1: Conditions for superpositions between prefixes, infixes and suffixes

An indirect path is more tricky to detect, because it can pass through any number of white components. Our approach is based on the observation that to pass from blue to red, the only white components an indirect path can go through are infixes. We consider that white infixes who have a superposition with blue prefixes or infixes are "de facto" blue infixes and that a superposition between a de facto blue infix and a white infix is another de facto blue infix. With that in mind, an indirect path from blue to red exists when a superposition is possible between a de facto blue infix and a red infix or suffix.

We provide no demonstration for our claim but we hope that one can be derived from the preexisting demonstrations in the paper. However, we do provide an implementation for this optimised way of computing the union consistency, using this time a hand rolled transitive closure rather than a graph library.

### 4.0.1 De facto colored states identification

We can reformulate the definition of "de facto blue states" that we gave earlier as finding all the white infixes reachable from blue states. This is simply a matter of computing a transitive closure.

For this, we will make use of the defaultdict class:

```
from collections import defaultdict
```

Our implementation of transitive closure is a function that can be separated in three parts.

String transitive closure:

prefdict is a mapping from the prefixes of the infixes to the infixes. It allows us to quickly find superpositions.

Prefixes of infixes:

```
prefdict = defaultdict(set)
for inf in infixes:
    prefdict[inf[:-1]].add(inf)
```

The initial states in the closure are those who have a superposition with the starting components.

Initial closure:

```
closure = set()
for pref in starting_components:
    if pref in prefdict:
        closure.update(prefdict.pop(pref))
```

To complete the transitive closure, we iterate on all the elements in the closure and add to it all the new superpositions.

Transitive closure:

```
result = set()
while closure:
    el = closure.pop()
    result.add(el)
    if el[1:] in prefdict:
        closure.update(prefdict.pop(el[1:]))
return result
```

### 4.0.2 Union consistency v2

We can now implement the new union consistency test by getting the colored components and checking for direct and indirect paths between red and blue.

Union consistency v2:

For each color, we compute the infixes, as well as the potential starting and stopping points of paths. The potential starting points are the prefixes and the prefixes of infixes and the potential stopping points are the suffixes and the suffixes of infixes.

Colored components:

```
red_infixes = self.infixes - other.infixes
red_start = self.prefixes - other.prefixes
red_start.update(inf[1:] for inf in red_infixes)
red_stop = self.suffixes - other.suffixes
red_stop.update(inf[:-1] for inf in red_infixes)

blue_infixes = other.infixes - self.infixes
blue_start = other.prefixes - self.prefixes
blue_start.update(inf[1:] for inf in blue_infixes)
blue_stop = other.suffixes - self.suffixes
blue_stop.update(inf[:-1] for inf in blue_infixes)
```

If a direct path is found, we can stop early without having to search for indirect paths, which is more costly.

Direct paths:

```
if blue_start & red_stop or red_start & blue_stop: return False
```

If there were no direct paths, the transitive closure function is used to find the de facto blue states and the de facto red states. Finally, if no a superposition exists between de facto red states and blue states and vice-versa, this means that there is a no path between those two colors, and therefore that the union is consistent.

Indirect paths:

```
white_infixes = self.infixes & other.infixes
de_facto_red = string_transitive_closure(red_start, white_infixes)
de_facto_blue = string_transitive_closure(blue_start, white_infixes)

de_facto_red = {el[1:] for el in de_facto_red}
de_facto_blue = {el[1:] for el in de_facto_blue}

return not(de_facto_blue & red_stop) and not(de_facto_red & blue_stop)
```

### 4.1 Coherence tests

We create the test script coherence\_tests in order to make sure that we have the same results across all our methods. This script takes two arguments, to specify the dataset to use and the consistency method.

Argument handling:

```
from operator import itemgetter
import argparse
parser = argparse.ArgumentParser(description='Learn a k-test union from a dataset')
parser.add_argument('dataset', type=str)
parser.add_argument('method', type=str, choices=['graph', 'de_facto'])
args = parser.parse_args()
```

We load the learning function from the right file:

```
if args.method == 'graph':
    from tangled_ktestable import learn_ktest_union
else:
    from tangled_ktestable_v2 import learn_ktest_union
```

We load the dataset:

```
with open(args.dataset) as datasetfile:
   dataset = [line.rstrip('\n') for line in datasetfile]
```

We learn the clusters and print them:

```
union = learn_ktest_union(dataset, 3)
clusters = list(map(itemgetter(1), union))
print(clusters)
print(len(clusters))
```

We can now use this script to check if our implementations return the same results on the same dataset. We use the printjob dataset since it is the most comprehensive dataset we have.

```
python3 coherence_tests.py dataset/printjob.txt graph > graph
python3 coherence_tests.py dataset/printjob.txt de_facto > de_facto
wc -1 graph de_facto
echo difference:
diff graph de_facto
```

2 graph
2 de\_facto
4 total
difference:

## 5 Sources

1. Linard, A., de la Higuera C., Vaandrager F.:Learning Unions of k-Testable Languages, (2018): https://arxiv.org/abs/1812.08269